

1 Article

2 **Rapid Quantification and Validation of Lipid**
3 **Concentrations within Liposomes**4 **Carla B. Roces**¹, **Elisabeth Kastner**², **Peter Stone**², **Deborah Lowry**³ and **Yvonne Perrie**^{1,*}5 ¹ Strathclyde Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow G4 0RE,
6 UK; carla.roces-rodriguez@strath.ac.uk7 ² Aston Pharmacy School, School of Life and Health Sciences, Aston University, Birmingham B4 7ET, UK;
8 kastnere@aston.ac.uk (E.K.); stonep@aston.ac.uk (P.S.)9 ³ School of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Ulster University, Coleraine BT52 1SA, UK;
10 d.lowry@ulster.ac.uk

11 * Correspondence: yvonne.perrie@strath.ac.uk; Tel.: +44-141-552-4400

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14 **Abstract:** Quantification of the lipid content in liposomal adjuvants for subunit vaccine formulation
15 is of extreme importance, since this concentration impacts both efficacy and stability. In this paper,
16 we outline a high performance liquid chromatography-evaporative light scattering detector (HPLC-
17 ELSD) method that allows for the rapid and simultaneous quantification of lipid concentrations
18 within liposomal systems prepared by three liposomal manufacturing techniques (lipid film
19 hydration, high shear mixing, and microfluidics). The ELSD system was used to quantify four lipids:
20 1,2-dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC), cholesterol,
21 dimethyldioctadecylammonium (DDA) bromide, and D-(+)-trehalose 6,6'-dibehenate (TDB). The
22 developed method offers rapidity, high sensitivity, direct linearity, and a good consistency on the
23 responses ($R^2 > 0.993$ for the four lipids tested). The corresponding limit of detection (LOD) and limit
24 of quantification (LOQ) were 0.11 and 0.36 mg/mL (DMPC), 0.02 and 0.80 mg/mL (cholesterol), 0.06
25 and 0.20 mg/mL (DDA), and 0.05 and 0.16 mg/mL (TDB), respectively. HPLC-ELSD was shown to
26 be a rapid and effective method for the quantification of lipids within liposome formulations
27 without the need for lipid extraction processes.

28 **Keywords:** lipids; liposomes; cholesterol; quantification; HPLC; ELSD
2930 **1. Introduction**

31 Liposomes continue to be a major focus in drug delivery research due to their ability to enhance
32 the delivery and targeting of a wide range of drugs and vaccines. In the majority of products
33 approved for clinical use, a combination of a phosphatidylcholine and cholesterol is used, with some
34 examples outlined in Table 1. However, as new applications are developed, and new lipids become
35 available, we are able to exploit a vast range of lipid combinations so as to further enhance the efficacy
36 of these formulations. For example, recent collaborative work from our laboratories has focused on
37 the use of cationic liposomal adjuvants to enhance the delivery and efficacy of sub-unit antigens. The
38 adjuvants are based on a two-component vesicle formulation, which is the combination of the cationic
39 lipid dimethyldioctadecylammonium (DDA) and D-(+)-trehalose 6,6'-dibehenate (TDB). DDA is a
40 synthetic amphiphile discovered to have adjuvant properties by Gall in the mid-1960s [1]. It contains
41 a quaternary ammonium group with two 18-carbon-long alkyl chains (forming the hydrophobic
42 moiety) and two methyl groups, which, together with the ammonium group, form the polar head
43 group. The positively-charged head group carries a monovalent counterion, typically bromide or
44 chloride. TDB is a synthetic analog of trehalose-6,6-dimycolate, an immunostimulatory component

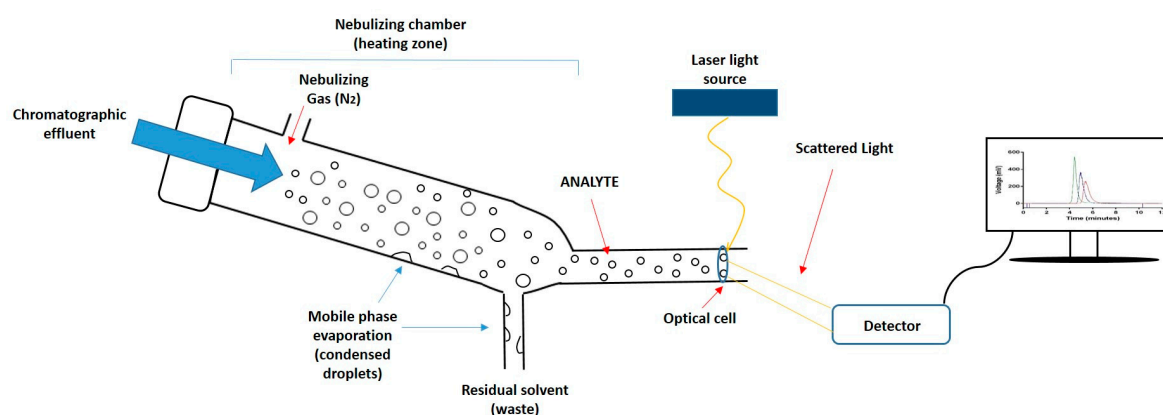
45 of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. It has two 22 carbon saturated fatty-acid chains (behenyl), each
 46 replacing the branched mycobacterial mycolic acids of >70 carbons. These two behenyl chains are
 47 linked by ester bonds to carbon number six of each of the two glucopyranose rings making up the
 48 trehalose head group. TDB has been shown to retain much of the bioactivity of the native form, while
 49 showing less toxicity as a result of the shorter fatty acid chains [2,3]. Formulation of vesicles from
 50 DDA alone produces vesicles able to induce cell-mediated immunity and delayed-type
 51 hypersensitivity. Along with its cationic nature and surfactant properties, it has been shown to be an
 52 effective adjuvant in numerous applications, including mucosal immunization [4], gene delivery
 53 [5,6], and subunit vaccine delivery [7–9]. However the combination of DDA and TDB within the
 54 liposome formulation was shown to further enhance the adjuvant properties of the liposomes [10].
 55 This lipid combination is known as the cationic adjuvant formulation (CAF) 01.

56 **Table 1.** Examples of approved liposome formulations.

Product Name	Drug Delivered	Lipid Composition
AmBisome®	Amphotericin B	Hydrogenated soy phosphatidylcholine, cholesterol, distearoylphosphatidyl glycerol, and α tocopherol
Caelyx®/ Doxil®	Doxorubicin	PEGylated distearoylphosphatidyl ethanolamine, hydrogenated soy phosphatidylcholine, and cholesterol
DaunoXome®	Daunorubicin	Distearylphosphatidylcholine and cholesterol
Definity®	Octafluoropropane	Dipalmitoylphosphatidic acid, dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine, and PEG-500 dipalmitoyl phosphatidylethanolamine
DepoCyte®	Cytarabine	Dioleoylphosphatidylcholine, cholesterol, dipalmitoylphosphatidylglycerol, and triolein
DepoDur®	Morphine sulfate	Dioleoyl phosphatidylcholine, dipalmitoyl phosphatidylglycerol, cholesterol, and triolein
Epaxal®	Inactivated hepatitis A virus	Phosphatidylcholine, cephalin, and purified virus surface antigens
Inflexal V®	Influenza haemagglutinin glycoprotein and neuraminidase	Similar to Epaxal; phosphatidylcholine, cephalin, and purified virus surface antigens
Myocet®	Doxorubicin	Egg phosphatidylcholine and cholesterol
Visudyne®	Vereporfin	Dimyristoylphosphatidylcholine and egg phosphatidylglycerol

57 Given the importance of lipid composition in liposome formulations in terms of their drug
 58 incorporation and release properties, pharmacokinetic properties, and their stability, the
 59 quantification of lipid components is a key product attribute. However, the development of rapid
 60 and simple quantitative tools for the analysis of lipids has been slow. This is primarily due to the
 61 absence of easily detectable functional groups (e.g., chromophores) on most lipids, which makes them
 62 difficult to measure quantitatively using the more common types of detectors. Therefore, while high-
 63 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) is the technique of choice for the efficient separation of
 64 lipid components based on different chain lengths, head group composition, and polarities [11–16],
 65 appropriate detectors for lipids are required for the quantification of these lipids upon separation. To
 66 achieve this, mass detectors such as evaporative light scattering detectors (ELSD) can be used [17].
 67 ELSD is used for the quantification of non-volatile components dissolved in volatile solvents. In this
 68 method, a nebuliser evaporates the solvent (mobile phase) inside the heating chamber. Solvent
 69 droplets condense within the chamber and are removed from the system. Meanwhile, the non-
 70 volatile compound (analyte) becomes a mist of small particles which continue moving, by means of
 71 a stream of compressed air, towards the detector. When sample particles pass through the optical
 72 cell, a laser beam illuminates the sample, and when the laser hits the particles, the intensity of the
 73 scattered light is measured by a detector (Figure 1). The detector can quantify the amount of sample

74 according to the scattered light detected. This method is constrained to a sufficiently volatile solvent
 75 with a different volatility than the analyte, and for the separation of lipid classes, gradient elution is
 76 often required.



77

78 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the mechanism of an evaporative light scattering detector
 79 (ELSD). First, the chromatographic eluate passes through the nebulizer and mixes with the nebulizing
 80 gas (N₂), causing dispersion of droplets; subsequently, droplets enter into the nebulizing chamber
 81 where the mobile phase evaporates and condenses, being removed as waste; Finally, the analyte
 82 crosses an optical cell, a laser beam penetrates the particles, and the scattered light is detected and
 83 converted into a signal.

84 In addition to considering quantification, lipid degradation is also an important factor that needs
 85 to be considered. The main route of phospholipid degradation is hydrolysis [18]. This can occur
 86 rapidly, and can be promoted by increases in temperature and/or harsh processing conditions, such
 87 as sonication. However, the use of bath sonication may circumvent this issue [19]. The products of
 88 the hydrolysis of phospholipids are lysolipids, and they have a detergent effect which can interfere
 89 with the liposome bilayer. This is due to the lysolipids stabilizing pores in the membrane, thereby
 90 enhancing the permeability of the bilayer and promoting liposome bilayer fusion [20,21]. This process
 91 can occur even at low lysolipid concentrations [22]. Lipids can also be susceptible to degradation via
 92 oxidation of polyunsaturated hydrocarbon chains and ester hydrolysis, producing oxidized
 93 lysophosphatide and free fatty acid derivatives. These products of oxidation also have an effect on
 94 membrane permeability [23]. However, it has been shown that the presence of cholesterol within a
 95 liposome formulation can reduce oxidation by reducing lipid-bilayer hydration [24]. To quantify
 96 degradation, previous work has centered around using NMR and mass spectrometry to analyze the
 97 products of lipid degradation; however, these methods can be both time consuming and expensive
 98 to run [25].

99 Given that the choice of lipid composition directly impacts liposome efficacy and stability, the
 100 aim of this current study was to develop and validate a rapid quantification method for lipids that
 101 does not require an initial lipid extraction process. This method was used to quantify lipids within
 102 the DDA:TDB liposome adjuvant system and also to demonstrate the general procedures such that
 103 they can be applied to a wide range of lipids used by liposomologists. As such, we demonstrate the
 104 quantification of four lipids using HPLC-ELSD: DDA, TDB, DMPC, and cholesterol, with a detailed
 105 focus on cholesterol given that it is the most common component of liposome systems. We also
 106 consider the ability of this HPLC-ELSD method to detect phospholipid lipid degradation.

107 2. Materials and Methods

108 2.1. Materials

109 The cationic surfactant dimethyldioctadecylammonium (DDA) bromide, neutral lipid 1,2-
 110 dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC) and the immunopotentiator α,α' -trehalose 6,6'-

111 dibehenate (TDB) were obtained from Avanti Polar Lipids Inc., Alabaster, AL, US. Cholesterol was
112 obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., Poole, UK. 2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)-1,3-propanediol
113 (Trizma base[®]) was obtained from ICN Biomedicals Inc., Aurora, Ohio, US, and ultrapure water was
114 obtained from a Milli-Q purification system (Millipore, Billerica, MA, US). All other reagents, such
115 as chloroform, methanol, isopropyl alcohol, phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and trifluoroacetic acid
116 (TFA) were of analytical grade and purchased from commercial suppliers.

117 2.2. Manufacturing of Liposomes

118 Liposomal formulations were prepared in triplicate ($n = 3$) by using three different methods.
119 With the traditional lipid film hydration (LH) method [26] weighed amounts of DDA (10 mg/mL),
120 TDB (2 mg/mL), cholesterol (2 mg/mL), and DMPC (10 mg/mL) were dissolved in a mixture of
121 chloroform:methanol (v/v 9:1) for the preparation of the stock solutions. The required amount of lipid
122 solution was transferred to a round-bottom flask to reach the desired lipid concentration and mixed;
123 DDA and TDB concentrations were fixed at 2.5 and 0.5 mg/mL, respectively, and cholesterol was
124 added to the CAF01 formulation at a concentration of 0.8 mg/mL. In the third formulation, DDA was
125 replaced by DMPC and kept at the original concentration. Organic solvent was removed under
126 vacuum with a rotary evaporator for 15 min at 200 revolutions per minute (rpm) at 37 °C in a water
127 bath. Afterwards, the lipid film was dried with a gentle stream of N₂ in order to remove any trace of
128 organic solvent. Then, the lipid film was hydrated with 1 mL of 10 mM Tris buffer (pH 7.4) at 60 °C
129 (DDA has the highest T_m (~47 °C) of all four lipids; thus, hydration of the lipid film was at 10 °C above
130 it) with vortexing every 5 min for 20 min.

131 After preparation by the thin lipid film, the formed liposomes were subjected to probe sonication
132 (MSE Soniprep 150 plus with MSE probe 100, MSE, London, UK) at an amplitude of 10 amps. The
133 liposomes were sonicated for 10 min. The liposome samples were placed in 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes
134 and then subjected to centrifugation (Grant-bio PCV-3000, Grant, Shepreth, UK) at 1500 rpm for 20
135 min to remove any large contaminants from solution. Supernatant (100 μ L) was collected for size
136 analysis.

137 The thin film method followed by high shear mixing (HSM) (SilentCrusher M, Heidolph
138 instruments, Schwabach, Germany) [27]: after preparation of the thin lipid film, formation of
139 liposomes was carried out by hydration of the film with 1 mL of Tris buffer (10 mM, pH 7.4) and high
140 shear mixing at 60 °C. The head of the HSM was immersed in the formulation, and samples were
141 homogenized at high speed (240,000 rpm) for 15 min.

142 Microfluidics (MF) (Nanoassemblr[™] Benchtop, Precision Nanosystems Inc., Vancouver, British
143 Columbia, Canada) [28]: in order to produce DDA or DMPC-containing liposomes, lipids were
144 dissolved in the organic solvent (isopropyl alcohol) at the concentrations mentioned above. Organic
145 and aqueous phase (Tris buffer 10 mM, pH 7.4) were heated to 60 °C before and during injection into
146 the system. Control parameters of the microfluidics system were varied in order to obtain the smallest
147 liposome size. After liposome preparation, samples were dialyzed (membrane cut off 3500 Da,
148 Medicell membranes, Ltd., London, UK) against 200 mL of Tris buffer during 1 h in order to remove
149 the organic solvent.

150 2.3. HPLC Method

151 Quantification of the lipid recovery was performed by reverse phase high performance liquid
152 chromatography (HPLC) (YL instrument, Anyang, Korea) using a SEDEX 90LT ELSD detector (Sedex
153 Sedere, Alfortville, France) connected to the instrument. The use of evaporative light-scattering
154 detectors can result in limited direct linearity, and when larger concentration ranges are required, a
155 standard log–log transformation can be used. However, within our studies, we use the SEDEX 90LT,
156 which offers a notably increased overall direct linearity range. A Phenomenex Luna column 5 μ m
157 C18(2) 4.60 mm inner diameter and 150 mm length with 100 Å pore size (Phenomenex, Macclesfield
158 UK.) was used as stationary phase, since a C18 column increases the retention of non-polar analytes.
159 Separation of the lipids was carried out using an elution gradient analysis displayed in Table 2.
160 Mobile phase A consisted of 0.1% TFA in water, whereas mobile phase B consisted of 100% methanol.

161 Standard lipid solutions were dissolved in chloroform:methanol (9:1 *v/v*) prior to injection, whereas
 162 liposome formulations were injected after manufacturing with no prior modification. The HPLC-
 163 ELSD settings were kept constant as follows: 30 μ L injection volume in a partial loopfill injection
 164 mode, 100 μ L loop volume and 15 μ L tubing volume. Column temperature was maintained at 35 °C,
 165 whereas the ELSD temperature was set at 52 °C in all the runs. Nitrogen was used as a carrier gas at
 166 3.5 psi inlet pressure. Chromatograms were analyzed with Clarity DataApex version 4.0.3.876
 167 software.

168 2.4. Standard Solutions

169 Standard solutions of cholesterol (0.025 to 1 mg/mL), TDB (0.2 to 1 mg/mL), DDA (0.125 to 2.5
 170 mg/mL), and DMPC (0.25 to 2.5 mg/mL) were prepared in chloroform:methanol (*v/v* 9:1). Solutions
 171 were injected into the HPLC system prior to each measurement in order to establish the calibration
 172 curves and as a reference check.

173 **Table 2.** Gradient elution method for quantitative analysis of cholesterol, 1,2-dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-
 174 3-phosphocholine (DMPC), dimethyldioctadecylammonium (DDA), and D-(+)-trehalose 6,6'-
 175 dibehenate (TDB). TFA: trifluoroacetic acid.

Time (min)	% Eluent A (0.1% TFA in d H ₂ O)	% Eluent B (MeOH)	Flow Rate (mL/min)
0	15	85	1.5
6	0	100	1.5
25	0	100	1.5
26	15	85	1.5
35	15	85	1.5

176 2.5. Method Validation

177 The method was validated by assessing the linearity, reproducibility, robustness, accuracy, limit
 178 of detection (LOD), and limit of quantification (LOQ). For quantification, established calibration
 179 curves were used. The system was flushed with 100% methanol before each use for 30 min until a
 180 stable baseline was observed.

181 2.6. HPLC Lipid Degradation Method

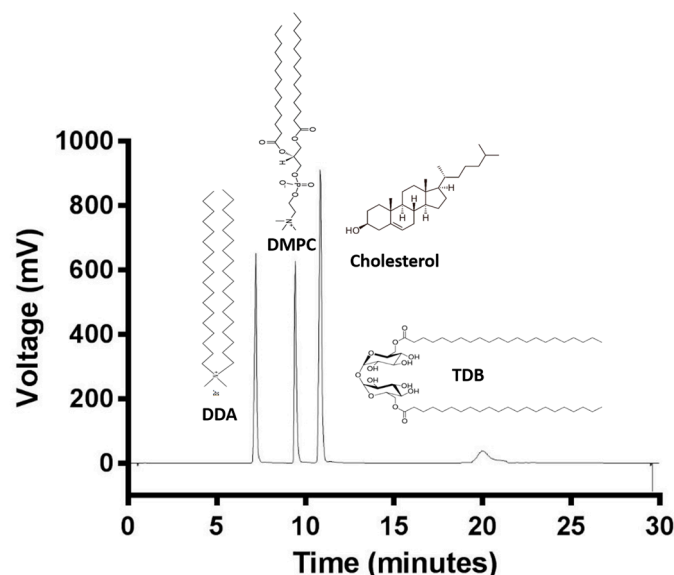
182 Separation of lipid degradation products was carried out using an isocratic flow method (85%
 183 methanol and 15% of 0.1% TFA in water) at a flow rate of 1 mL/min allowed the lipids to separate
 184 down the column. HPLC-ELSD settings were kept constant as outlined in Section 2.3 using the
 185 Phenomenex Luna 5 μ m C8(2) 4.60 mm inner diameter and 150 mm length with 100 Å pore size. The
 186 specificity of the method was tested by conducting forced degradation of a liposome formulation
 187 using 0.1N HCl at room temperature for four days, as previously described by Zhong
 188 and Zhang [29].

189 3. Results and Discussion

190 3.1. Lipid Quantification Using HPLC-ELSD: Method Development

191 The cationic lipid DDA, and other neutral lipids such as cholesterol, DMPC, and the
 192 immunopotentiator TDB are common compounds of liposomal adjuvant formulations. Lipid
 193 quantification is of great importance for the stability and efficacy of liposomal formulations.
 194 Therefore, an HPLC-ELSD method for the quantification of these lipids was developed in order to
 195 achieve the analysis of all four lipids at the same time. Figure 2 shows the chromatogram of a mixture
 196 of the four lipids and their chemical structures. DDA is the least hydrophobic lipid and eluted at 7.1
 197 min, followed by DMPC at 9.2 min, cholesterol at 10.9 min, and finally TDB at 19.9 min due to its
 198 hydrophobicity. Analysis time was set at 35 min, even though all four lipids eluted within the first 20
 199 min, in order give time to the column to equilibrate. Elution peaks were well separated with a stable

200 baseline. TDB peaks were short and wide, whereas DDA, DMPC, and cholesterol peaks were high
 201 and sharp. Chromatographic methods have to be tested in order to guarantee trustworthy and solid
 202 data. Therefore, validation of the HPLC-ELSD method was performed according to the International
 203 Conference of Harmonization (ICH) guidelines Q₂ (R₁) [30] in terms of linearity, sensitivity, accuracy,
 204 reproducibility, and robustness, and as an example, a complete validation protocol for cholesterol is
 205 outlined in Figure 3.



206

207 **Figure 2.** ELSD-detected HPLC chromatogram of DDA (1.5 mg/mL), DMPC (1.5 mg/mL), Cholesterol
 208 (2 mg/mL), and TDB (1 mg/mL).

209 For the linearity assessment (Figure 3A–D), standard solutions of each lipid were prepared in
 210 chloroform:methanol (9:1 *v/v*). A different concentration range was chosen for each lipid, based on
 211 the initial concentration used for the preparation of liposomes: for DDA, the concentration ranged
 212 from 0.125–2.5 mg/mL; for DMPC, from 0.25–2.5 mg/mL; for TDB, from 0.2–1 mg/mL; and for
 213 cholesterol, 0.025–1 mg/mL. The mean peak area \pm standard deviation (SD) was calculated and
 214 plotted against the known concentration of the standard. ELSDs are known to be non-linear;
 215 however, SEDEX 90LT provides direct linearity and a good consistency on the responses. From
 216 Figure 3A–D it can be seen that all calibration curves display a good linear fit, with correlation
 217 coefficients (R^2) greater than 0.993.

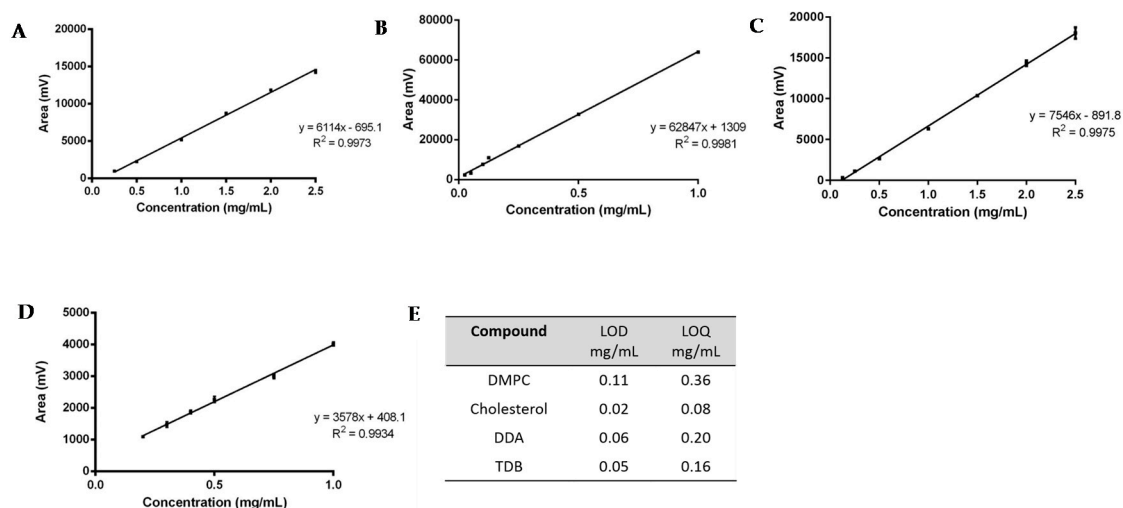
218 Study of the sensitivity of the method was assessed by means of the calculation of the limit of
 219 detection and the limit of quantification (Figure 3E). Values were determined from the standard
 220 deviation of the response (σ) and the slope (S) obtained from the calibration curves carried out during
 221 the linearity assessment. According to the ICH guidelines, a signal-to-noise ratio of three was
 222 assumed for the quantification of the LOD, whereas for the LOQ, a signal-to-noise ratio of ten was
 223 set. Therefore, following Equations (1)–(3), the sensitivity of the method for the detection of DDA,
 224 TDB, DMPC, and cholesterol was calculated.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (Y - Y_i)^2}{n - 2}} \quad (1)$$

$$LOD = \frac{3\sigma}{S} \quad (2)$$

$$LOQ = \frac{10\sigma}{S} \quad (3)$$

225 The corresponding LOD and LOQ were 0.11–0.36 mg/mL, 0.02–0.80 mg/mL, 0.06–0.20 mg/mL,
 226 and 0.05–0.16 mg/mL for DMPC, cholesterol, DDA, and TDB, respectively (Figure 3E). TDB was the
 227 most difficult lipid to quantify, since the intensity of the peaks and the concentration used for the
 228 formulations was lower compared to the other compounds, which reflects the concentrations used
 229 within liposome formulations.



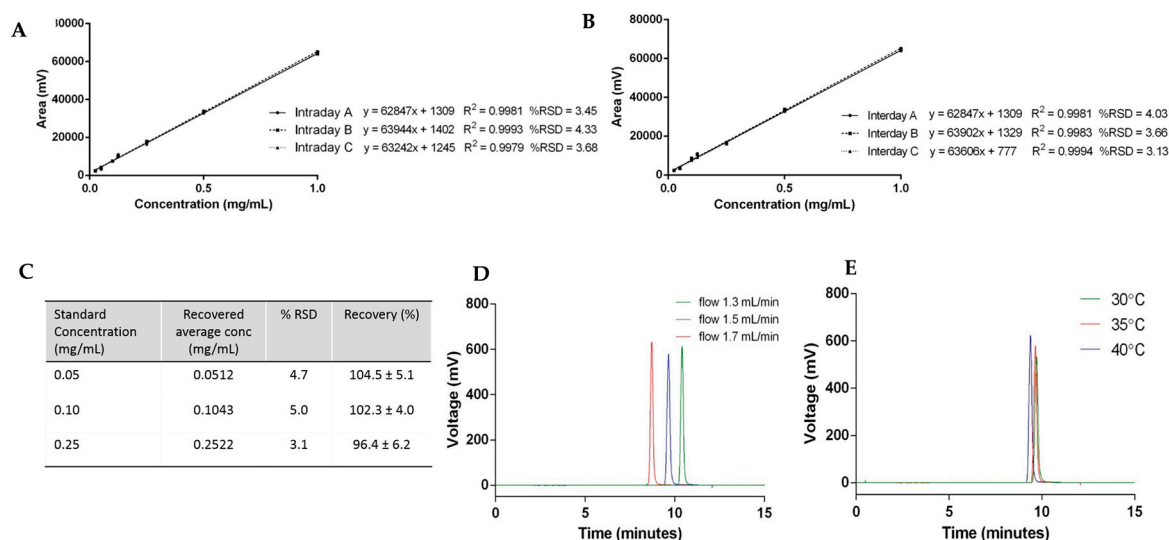
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231 **Figure 3.** Linearity assessment of (A) DMPC (0.25 to 2.5 mg); (B) Cholesterol (0.025 to 1 mg); (C) DDA
 232 (0.125 to 2.5 mg); and (D) TDB (0.2 to 1 mg). The LOD and LOQ for each lipid is shown in (E). Results
 233 represent mean \pm SD of triplicate measurements ($n = 3$).

234 The repeatability of the method is the determination of how close values are to each other under
 235 identical experimental conditions, and was assessed by determination of the intraday and interday
 236 variability using cholesterol (Figure 4). Cholesterol standards from 0.025 to 1 mg/mL carried out
 237 within the same day (intraday) and over the course of three days (interday) are plotted in Figure
 238 4A,B, respectively. For the linearity assessment, the average peak area \pm SD measurements of each
 239 concentration were plotted against the known cholesterol concentration. The results show that the
 240 values have no detectable difference for all the calibration curves carried out at different times on the
 241 same day and also on different days, meaning the method has good precision.

242 To test the accuracy of the HPLC-ELSD method, spiked samples of cholesterol standards were
 243 prepared and quantified. Figure 4C shows the results of three replicates of cholesterol concentrations
 244 at 0.05, 0.1, and 0.25 mg/mL injected into the HPLC-ELSD system in triplicate ($n = 9$). The relative
 245 standard deviation (% RSD) and the recovery of cholesterol were calculated for each concentration,
 246 and were within the acceptance limit of $\leq 5\%$ and 90%–110%, respectively (Figure 4C).

247 Robustness—which represents the ability of the method to remain unchanged by small
 248 deviations—was demonstrated by variation in the flow rate and column temperature. To consider
 249 this the flow rate, which was initially set at 1.5 mL/min, was changed by ± 0.2 mL/min, and Figure 4D
 250 displays the elution peaks of cholesterol by variation of the flow rate. Increased flow rate—which
 251 represents an increased volume and speed of mobile phase through the column—resulted in a faster
 252 elution of cholesterol. In contrast, a decreased flow rate resulted in the later elution of cholesterol
 253 from the column. When the column temperature was modified ± 5 °C, small variations in the
 254 cholesterol elution time and column height were seen (Figure 4E). An increase in temperature
 255 accelerates the elution of cholesterol, which can be explained by an increase in the diffusion of the
 256 molecules due to the higher temperature. Due to the changes observed during the robustness
 257 assessment, flow rate and column temperature were fixed at 1.5 mL/min and 35 °C, respectively.



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Figure 4. Cholesterol quantification case study: (A) intraday variability; (B) interday variability; (C) accuracy; and robustness with (D) flow rate and (E) temperature.

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3.2. Quantification of Lipids within Liposomal Adjuvant Formulations

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After method validation, three liposomal formulations were prepared: DDA and TDB concentrations were fixed at 3.96 and 0.5 mM, respectively, and cholesterol was added to this formulation at a concentration of 31 mol % in order to increase the fluidity of the membrane bilayer and favor the formation of liposomes at room temperature. In the third formulation, DDA was replaced by DMPC. These formulations were prepared using three different manufacturing methods. Lipid film hydration is the classical method used to prepare liposomes. It has been used since 1960s, and since then, variation of the method and other methods for liposome preparation have emerged. Among them are the combination of LH with high shear mixing [27] and microfluidics [31–33]. Microfluidics manipulates the mixing of fluids in micro-sized channels, allowing for size-controlled liposome preparation [31]. It has several advantages compared to other methods, such as high reproducibility and scalability, low cost, and easy control. However, it is important to consider lipid concentrations post-production of liposomes, given that this can impact the physicochemical characterization of the resulting liposomes and will determine the performance of these delivery systems. The results (Figure 5) obtained from each technique showed that larger liposomes were prepared by the traditional LH method, whereas HSM and MF produced smaller liposomes and more homogeneous particle size distributions, as would be expected with these methods (Figure 5). Similarly, as the same lipid composition was used in each method, the zeta potentials for all three formulations were similar, irrespective of the manufacturing method (Figure 5). Given that the aim of this research was to develop a rapid procedure for the quantification of lipids within liposomes, without the need for extraction processes, formulations were injected into the HPLC-ELSD system, without prior modification, for quantification of the lipid recovery (Figure 5). Lipid quantification revealed a lipid recovery of 96%, 88%, 93%, and 97% for DDA, TDB, cholesterol, and DMPC, respectively, after manufacturing using LH. Liposome formulations manufactured using HSM showed a recovery of 95%, 90%, 99%, and 94% for DDA, TDB, cholesterol, and DMPC, respectively. Finally, microfluidics exhibited a recovery for DDA, TDB, cholesterol, and DMPC of 100%, 83%, 98%, and 100% respectively. For the immunopotentiator TDB, the results were more variable than for the other lipids, but was >80% across the formulations, presumably due to the low concentrations of TDB used in the formulations. In general, while the method of liposome formulation impacted liposome characteristics as would be expected, there are no significant differences in the recovery of the lipids between each of the three methods employed.

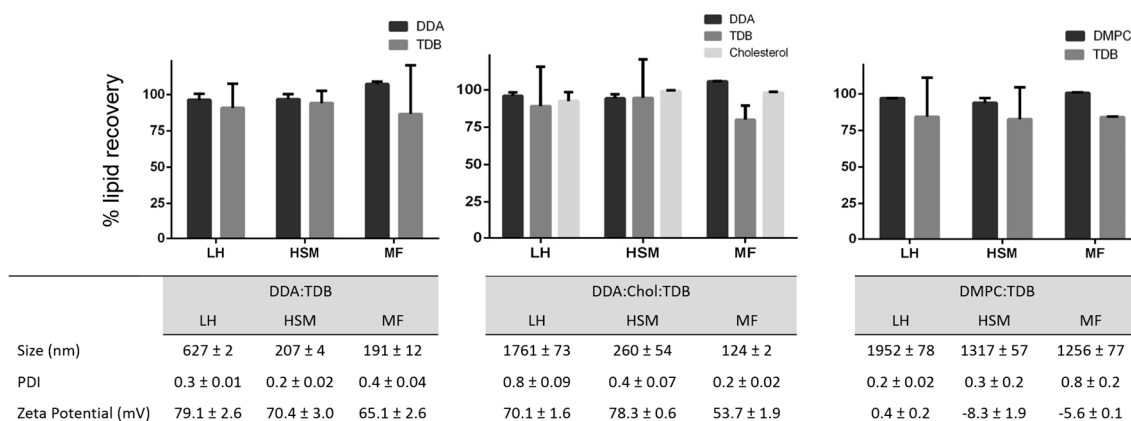
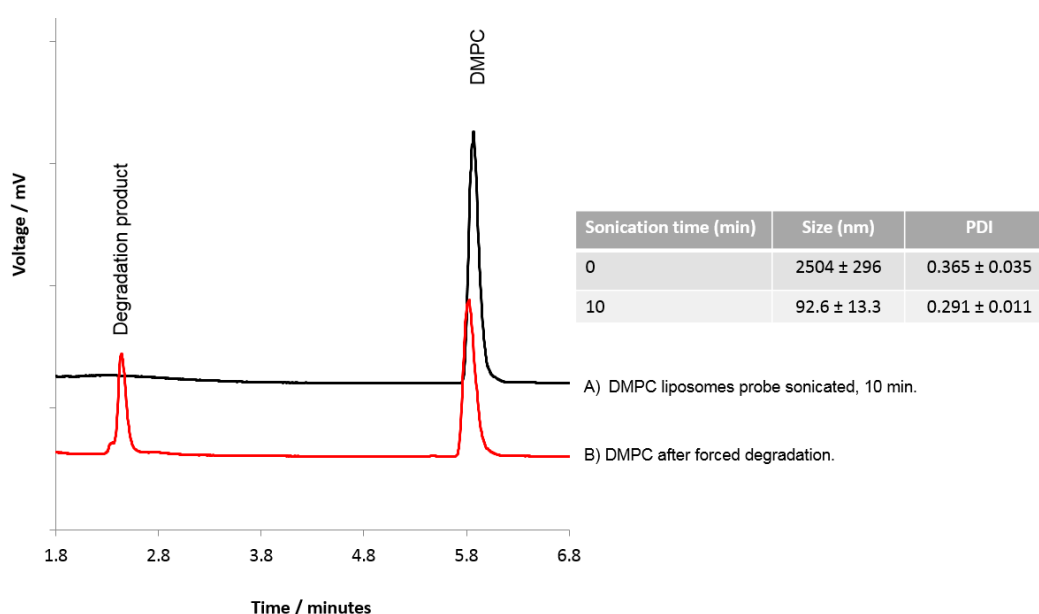


Figure 5. Lipid recovery, size, polydispersity index (PDI) and zeta potential (ZP) from liposomes prepared by lipid hydration (LH), high-shear mixing (HSM), and microfluidics (MF). Results represent the mean ± SD of three replicate batches ($n = 3$).

3.3. The Use of HPLC-ELSD to Assess Lipid Degradation in Liposome Formulations

To consider if HPLC-ELSD could be used to assess lipid degradation, DMPC liposomes were subject to probe sonication and forced degradation using HCl. Probe sonication of the liposomes for 10 min was shown to reduce the DMPC liposomes to ~90–100 nm with a PDI of 0.291 ± 0.011 (Figure 6), and HPLC-ELSD analysis did not detect any degradation products resulting from sonication (Figure 6A). However, degradation products from DMPC were detected with HPLC after forced degradation (Figure 6B), as represented by a peak at 2.4 min equating to degradation products, as previously shown by Zhong and Zhang [29]. Zhong et al. were able to show that dipalmitoyl phosphatidylcholine (DPPC) can degrade into palmitic acid and the lyso forms of DPPC. From our results, it cannot be confirmed which degradation products we were able to detect; however, the change in the DMPC peak and the formation of a new peak does suggest lipid degradation. While the data presented in Figure 6 suggests that the lipids were resistant to degradation via short-term sonication, previous studies have shown that probe sonication can cause an increase in hydrolysis and peroxidation of the lipids within the liposome bilayer, which can cause liposome instability, enhance the membrane permeability, and promote liposome fusion [19,23,34,35]. For more detailed analysis of lipid degradation, mass spectroscopy would be more beneficial. However, HPLC-ELSD can also offer insight into potential lipid degradation.



314 **Figure 6.** Analysis of lipids within DMPC liposomes. DMPC liposomes were prepared and subjected
315 to (A) probe sonication for 10 min, or (B) forced degradation using HCl.

316 4. Conclusions

317 Using HPLC-ELSD, we were able to rapidly and simultaneously quantify lipid concentration
318 within liposomal systems prepared from a range of lipids, and we have validated and applied this
319 method to demonstrate high lipid recovery within liposomes prepared by a range of methods. This
320 demonstrates the applicability of HPLC-ELSD for the rapid quantification of lipids within liposomal
321 systems for drug and vaccine delivery.

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